DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 082 572 FL 004 484

AUTHOR	Pack, Alice E., Ed.
TITLE	TESL Reporter, Vol. 4, No. 4.
INSTITUTION	Church Coll. of Hawaii, Laie. English Language Inst.
PUB DATE	71
NOTE	12p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	Audiovisual Aids; Behavioral Science Research; Diagrams; Educational Psychology; *English (Second Language); Instructional Materials; *Language Instruction; Language Patterns; Linguistics; Morphology (Languages); *Newsletters; Oral Communication; Oral English; Psycholinguistics; Psychology; Speech Skills; Teaching Styles; *Teaching Techniques; Telephone Instruction; Verbs

ABSTRACT

This issue contains the following articles: "Behaviorist and Rationalist Psychology and Language Teaching Theory," by William Gallagher; "TESL and Speech Communication," by Kay M. Yamada; "More on Using a Telephone Directory to Teach English as a Second language," by Betty M. Crethar; and "Supplementation of Opposites in Simple Predicate Expansion," by Yao Shen. A companion article by Yao Shen in included in FL 004 483. There are also two book reviews: "English through Pictures--Book I," by I.A. Richards and Christine Gibson; and "Science Readings for Students of English as a Second Language," edited by Kenneth Croft and Billye Walker Brown. (HW)

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TESL REPORTER

Teaching English as a Second Language

Published by:
English Language Institute
The Church College of Hawaii

Vol. 4, No. 4 Laie, Hawaii Summer, 1971

ED 082572

FL 004 484

BEHAVIORIST AND RATIONALIST PSYCHOLOGY AND LANGUAGE TEACHING THEORY

By WILLIAM GALLAGHER

In the recent past, foreign language teachers have felt the need to follow typical linguistic field techniques and a behaviorist inspired teaching theory. This theory consisted of a stimulus-response model with practice and reinforcement playing the leading roles. At the present time psycholinguists are searching for better solutions to the problem of effective foreign language teaching. (Lakoff 69:117-119)

What are the language teachers themselves doing? Rationalist Noam Chomsky's conception of the role that the mind plays in language acquisition and Smith and Miller's (1966) **The Genesis of Language** should be causing foreign language teachers around the world to reexamine their own teaching theories. However, these rationalist ideas haven't had any real influence on actual teaching to date.

After explaining the results of recent experiments on language acquisition, Jerry Fodor states in **Genesis of Language**, " ... imitation and reinforcement, the two concepts with which American psychologists have traditionally approached problems about language learning, are simply useless here." (Smith 1966:112) If Fodor is correct, rather drastic changes in underlying teacher theory **should** be expected – except perhaps in areas where motor skills can be developed through practice (namely pronunciation, intonation, etc.).

*Many ideas and referances were borrowed from Robert Krohn, Kenneth Chastain, Danny Steinberg and Ronald Wardhaugh.

Although the foreign language teacher's own pedagogy may be far from the speculative domain of psycholinguistics and language acquisition theories, if the teacher has a clear understanding of the theories of grammar, teaching practice, and language acquisition, he will have the first step in the development of his personal strategy of classroom operation.

William Gallagher is a MATESL graduate of the University of Hawaii.

A teacher has to have some understanding of how the language works (i.e., a theory of

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grammar), a general understanding of how a language is learned, as well as a general pedagogical strategy of classroom operation before he can teach. These understandings or theories may be unconscious, but I believe that the more they are made explicit, the better the teacher will be able to assess his own strengths and weaknesses.

In short, given the qualities of rapport and sensitivity, superior teachers can be **created**. Teaching is an art, or a talent perhaps; but as with all talents, when one knows explicitly what he is doing, he should be able to perform even better. (Wardhaugh 70:231) It appears that we may have a better theory of grammar, and with it a superior theory of language acquisition than ever before – fraught with teaching implications.

In order to understand why I say 'better' and 'superior', a summary of the previous foreign language teaching model in contrast with the newer model will be helpful. The base of the previous 'linguistic method' of language teaching can be found in the work of Leonard Bloomfield. The methods he developed were applied to the famous Army Language Schools, the Language Training Mission of which I was a small part, and the Peace Corps Training Schools. These same methods, redefined by Fries, Brooks, and others, are now found in nearly all language teaching situations around the world. They seem to have great success, compared with the previous grammar-transition model!

It is interesting to note that several years passed before Bloomfield's model was developed into an actual teaching theory, even though it appears to lend itself more directly to classroom application with Chomsky's model. In terms of parallel chronological development, it would appear that the time is ripe (1971) for the development of a Chomskian teaching model.

In analyzing the 'linguistic model' (Bloomfield), it is important to keep in mind that Bloomfield was a behaviorist. He completely rejected rationalism. Listen to the following: "The command of a language is not a matter of knowledge; the speakers are quite unable to describe **the habits which make up their language**. The command of a language is a matter of **practice**," and " . . . language learning is over-learning; anything else is of no use." (Lado 64:94)

Statements like the the foregoing inspired foreign language teachers and set off a 'revolution' in language teaching theory which persists until today. Language acquisition was thought to come through a process of habit formation which is completely consistent with behaviorist principles of learning. With such notions as -- 'speech is primary', 'practice makes perfect', and a stimulus - response + reinforcement learning model -- one can understand why the so-called linguistic model was so easily adaptable to the classroom. All one had to do was to induce behavior in the classroom and overteach it, and out-of-class acumen would develop.

Since language was thus viewed as a non-intellectual, **mechanical activity**, involving a stimulus-response (this was spelled out by Skinner), the student needed only to be drilled through a series of patterns for which correct responses received immediate reinforcement and learning took place! Emphasis on **imitation, pattern drills,** mim-mem drills (the whole audio-lingual approach) is an extension of the Skinneren model. (Chastian 69:99) In the early stages, meaning is not important in order for the students to develop the desired automatic responses. The plan is to practice to the point of over-learning until the student arrives at an 'automatic, **non-thoughtful**' response. (Spolsky 66:120) (cf Rivers 64:26-38)

The 'linguistic method' revolution has now been challenged by 'counter revolutionaries' who seem to be following a movement developed in the last several years in the field of psychology. This newer psychological learning theory is based on the earlier rationalist school of thought and seems to be supported by recent experimentation and observation (cf Smith 1966).

The theory of generative transformational grammar and the newer theories of psychology both rest on a cognitive neuro-psychological basis for langauge. There has even been an attempt to characterize the so-called internal 'black box' as a computer complete with input, output tapes, and of course, routing codes or rules. It is as doubtful that the operations of the human mind can be characterized as simply as an electronic computer as it is that these same mind operations can be likened to a rat learning to wind its way successfully through a maze. (Steiner 69:217-236)

This newer grammar theory, with its rationalist extensions, seriously challenges

Skinner's theory (cf Chomsky's criticism of Skinner in Jakobovits 67:142-171). It should give rise to a new breed of language teacher because it characterizes man's language acquisition as something a good deal more complex than other animal behavior and it may provide us with whole new areas of thought regarding teaching methods, curriculum development, textbook designing etc. It should be noted that many of the behaviorist oriented authors outlined excellent teaching techniques in practice, but the rationalist would quarrel with their underlying rationale. (Krohn 70:104-108) In other words, they often did the right things for the wrong reasons.

The main criticism of the behaviorist model of language learning may be characterized by Chomsky's argument that the infinite number of sentences produced by a native speaker simply cannot be accounted for by habits acquired through pattern practice or in any way as a result of SR learning theory. Given a finite amount of time, there is no possible way anyone could learn (by imitation or by practicing patterns) the infinite number of sentences a fluent speaker is able to produce. There simply isn't enough time. Nor could a student ever learn enough patterns to account for the completely novel or infinitely long utterances he is able to make as a fluent speaker.

What does happen, according to the rationalists, is that the student already knows innately how to generalize about languages, and thus discovers for himself the grammar rules for constructing new sentences in the target language. In other words, what the student mostly needs is exposure. (Lakoff 69:122)

Language is not just a motor skill. Psychologist Donald O. Hebb, as early as 1949, claimed that extensive observations had shown that sentence construction could not be explained by a series of conditioned responses. He said, "... there are strong indicators that his (the speaker's) thought processes ... run well ahead of his actual articulations." (Lambert 63:38) So language production appears to require mental activity–not just motor skill development.

Language is not learned by repetition. Many other psychologists now agree, and their experiments clearly show, that repetition plays no significant role in the formation of association (of **American Journal of Psychology**, 70:193, 73:73, 74:601 and the **Psychological Review** 67:208). It even appears that continual repetition has a tendency to weaken or even cause a complete lapse of association between sound and meaning. (Lambert 60:377)

Language requires thought. Bernard Spolsky's experience with language teaching shows that, "Knowing a language involves not just the performance of language-like behaviors, but an underlying competence that makes such performance possible. By ignoring this, it has been easy to nurse exaggerated claims for the effectiveness of operant **conditioning** in second language teaching." (Spolsky 66:123)

Language is not learned by pattern practice, or by imitation. David McNeill doubts the applicability of an SR model to language learning inasmuch as his observations show that the early grammar of a child is **not** the same as that of an adult and therefore could not be the result of mere imitation. In his opinion children are born with the innate cognitive ability to develop their own grammatical systems. (Smith 66:17-24) Generative transformational linguists maintain that the subtleties of particular languages cannot ever be taught, even by their own GT rules, much less by pattern practice drills.

Language acquisition takes place when these inborn abilities are awakened by a human language environment. (Rudolf Steiner in Stockmyer 69:103) There is no reason to believe that second language learning does not take place in much the same way. Somehow students know how to generalize, deduce, and form intuitions. In short, the student must be encouraged to reason about the operations of the target language. (Lakoff 69:29-130)

Again, these findings should force us to reexamine our previously held notions about the learning process and to look for the admittedly more difficult to find teaching implications of the newer rationalist model. Even Behaviorist Robert Lado has called for additional study into inductive (behaviorist) vs. deductive (rationalist) language learning. (Lado 61:581)

In summary, John B. Carroll – after analyzing a number of language teaching projects underway in the early 50's, all using the behaviorist model – summarized by insisting as follows:

> . . . no method has emerged as clearly the best method, and there seems to be no end to the arguments as to the proper objectives of foreign-language instruction in our schools. (Carroll 53:186)

In other words, after nearly twenty years. -- from Bloomfield's linguistic theory up to the 1950's -- no one method could be singled out as the best. Was that because the methods were advanced by linguists and psychologists rather than by language teachers themselves? Perhaps.

In any event, the challenge is clearly upon us in the early 70's as teachers to develop our own materials with justifications and insights from the most advanced thinking of psychology, sociology, anthropology, and of course, linguistics.

My personal challenge to foreign language teachers is to reduce ideas about language teaching to writing (articulate a rationale), justify them from a psychological and a linguistic standpoint, and share them with the rest of us.

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BOOK REVIEW

Science Readings for Students of English as a Second Language: Kenneth Croft and Billye Walker Brown - Editors. Educational Series. McGraw Hill, 1966. 184 pages Paper Back. Price $2.50.

An intermediate to advanced level text with 26 readings in science education, biology, chemistry, earth science, physics, engineering, mathematics, medicine, meteorology, oceanography and space exploration. Original readings have been adapted shortened and divided into parts.

Vocabulary is controlled with an emphasis on the development of a working science vocabulary; "general purpose" vocabulary is also expanded through footnote explanations and pictured illustrations (a glossary at the end of the book is included).

Each lesson includes ten comprehension questions in addition to 20 exercises on vocabulary.

The book is excellent for high school or college preparatory courses where science will be a required subject or for adults who are scientists or wish to develop a science vocabulary.

ALICE C. PACK

TESL and Speech Communication

By KAY M. YAMADA

ENGLISH TEACHING OBJECTIVES:

Vocabulary
- geometric shapes
- prepositions of position
- singular indefinite articles

Phonology
- listening comprehension
- oral production

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVE:

Given geometric shapes, the student will be able to communicate a set of instructions to a listener in a back-to-back situation within two minutes. The listener must be able to reproduce the speaker's arrangement of design.

UNIT OVERVIEW:

In second language learning, language proficiency should not stand alone as a goal. Language proficiency and Speech Communication proficiency should stand as concurrent goals. Language proficiency has to do with the use of the language while Speech Communication proficiency has to do with the effectiveness of the communicative act Proficiency in language usage does not guarantee effective communication, therefore some consideration has to be given to the act of communication. This is the focal point of this unit, and it is hoped that the barriers of restraint which students often establish for themselves will be minimized and eventually lead to a more positive self-concept.

Although effective communication involves the interplay of several variables, for our purposes we will concentrate on only two. These two variables can be presented in very simple terms and yet are sufficiently significant that they may well spell the difference between intelligible and unintelligible speech. They are: (1) Loudness and (2) Vigor in articulation. Moderate level of loudness is the goal and by more vigor in articulation we refer to opening one's mouth to meet articulatory requirements.

In addition to the aforementioned variables, other facets which contribute toward effective communication will be considered. Among them will be the importance of the economy of words, usefulness of extensive vocabularies, influences of non-verbal communication, and individual responsibilities in the communication situation.

METHOD:

The tape-slide presentation method was chosen for Part I and a dyadic interchange was chosen for Part II. The tape-slide presentation method for Part I was decided upon to give students an opportunity to pursue the learning situation independently. The slide frames were presented in this order and accompanied by a taped monologue which occasionally changed into a dialogue with the narrator as the stimulus and the student as the respondent:

1. Title frame - "A Communication Exercise"
2. What is communication ?
3. Variable: Loudness
4. Variable: Articulation
5. Review of two variables (frames 3 and 4)
6. Introduction to geometric shapes (to be usene used in exercise)
7. Four types of lines
8. Review of frame 7
9. A circle
10. A triangle
11. Review frames 9 and 10
12. A square
13. A rectangle
14. A parallelogram
15. Review frames 12, 13, and 14
16. A trapezoid
17. A hexagon
18. An octagon
19. Review frames 16, 17, and 18
20. Trial exercise in following directions
21. Trial exercise in following directions
22. Instructions for exercise. End.

(continued on page 9)

More on Using a Telephone Directory to Teach English as a Second Language

By BETTY M. CRETHAR

As an instructor at the Church College of Hawaii, I was endeavoring to find a provocative way of utilizing Jason B. Alter's telephone in the classroom techniques. My first step was to obtain out-of-date telephone directories from the telephone business office. I procured enough for every student in the class. The out-of-date editions were used to decrease the book mortality rate and also to allow the student to take the book home if he so desired.

Apart from the obvious classification value, the directories served as a catalyst for classroom game lessons. I was teaching one of our advanced writing groups and the game lessons listed below were excellent reinforcement activities to the classification material we were covering in homework assignments.

1. Divide the class into two teams, call out the name of an item such as a hammer, dress, car, watch, etc. Have the students race through the pages to see if they can find the classification section the item would be listed under and call out the page number. Mark a point on the blackboard for the team member.
2. Call out the name of a problem: car trouble, tooth ache, termites, hunger, etc. Have the students find the name and number of some business or person who can help, from the yellow pages. This can be done with class teams, or individually.
3. Have students pick out 5–10 words in the classified section, words which are new or strange to them. Have them look the words up and write a sentence using each word for a homework assignment. Discuss the definitions for reinforcement during the next class period.
4. Make a list of idiom expressions found in the classified section and develop a class lesson or lessons from these lists: hang-up, party-line, busy tone, etc.
5. A listening lesson: have a student (or the instructor) pick any page in the telephone book and start reading the names while the others locate and identify the page while listening to the names being called out. (Teams can be used in this game for variety.)
6. A writing assignment: Have the students look up a business in the yellow pages, one which they would like to own, (travel agency, bank, real estate, car rental, etc.). Have the student describe in a paragraph why we should use their services, using the information given in the classified ad.

The above activity in the "telephone game" displayed the unique creativity of the class as commercial writers. Samples of some of their work indicate this talent:

"The payless U-Drive of mine has one of the lowest rates on the beautiful island of Hawaii. There is no mileage charge for you. You can use any of the following automobiles: strong Datsuns, beautiful Toyotas, or Volkswagons to satisfy your desire. Only the smartest people call for this free pick-up service. Why not YOU!? If you are smart now, just call our phone number."

"On behalf of myself and my staff members at the Hawaii State Employment Service, we would like to announce to all job hunters that starting today our office will open from 7:30 a.m. until 7:30 p.m. So if you aren't satisfied with your job and your salary now, bring your name in or call us. There is no application experience needed. All jobs are open for permanent, part-time and all other times. Remember, just write your name down and become an employee.

(continued on page 10)

Supplementation of Opposites in Simple Predicate Expansion

By YAO SHEN

The following summarizes the occurrences (+) and the non-occurrences(-)of both kinds of strings in their internal relationships.

	can	will	do	have	be
B (+ V)	+	+	+	+	+
B (+ B)	+	+	-	+	+
(B +) B	-	-	-	+	+
stressed	+	+	+	+	+
unstressed	+	+	-	+	+
(B +) -N	-	-	-	+	+

There is a hierarchy of string formations among the six sets of (+) and (-). A continuous string ranks higher than a discontinuous one the following member of which is suffixed to the following member of a continuous string. Continuous string B + V ranks first (1); it attests the possibility of string formation with the verb which is the central reference in the predicate.[2] Sentence sets with parallel predicates rank next. The set in which the members of preceding B have full participation and are stressed (2) ranks higher than the set in which those of preceding B have partial participation and are unstressed (3). A string in a predicate, continuous or discontinuous, begins with B (4). Following member B which ends a continuous string (5) ranks higher than following member -N which ends a discontinuous string (6). The last -N in an expanded predicate occurs after the verb and ends the predicate. The above tabulation is re-arranged accordingly.

	can	will	do	have	be
1. B (+ V)	+	+	+	+	+
2. stressed	+	+	+	+	+
3. unstressed	+	+	-	+	+
4. B (+ B)	+	+	-	+	+
5. (B +) B	-	-	-	+	+
6. (B +) -N	-	-	-	+	+

In both the formulas and the tabulation, there are redundancy and complementation. Following members V and B in continuous string formula B + $\begin{smallmatrix}V\\B\end{smallmatrix}$ are morphologically formed and mutually exclusive. They can be represented by M, as either V or B. B + $\begin{smallmatrix}V\\B\end{smallmatrix}$ can be reduced to B + M. Following members -N and -Ø are phonologically formed and mutually exclusive. They can be represented by -F, as either -N or -Ø. B + $\begin{smallmatrix}-N\\Ø\end{smallmatrix}$ can be reduced to B + -F. B is redundant in B + M and B + -F. Continuous string B + M and discontinuous string B + -F are combined to form B + $\begin{smallmatrix}M\\-F\end{smallmatrix}$

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A 2-member string begins with a word from function words, Group B (B) which forms a continuous string with a following member morphologically (M), and a discontinuous string with a different following member phonologically (-F). The phonologically formed part (-F) of a discontinuous string is suffixed to the morphologically formed part (M) of a continuous string. A 2-member string is a sequence of three parts with B (function

1. This is the last of four installments. I am grateful to Robert A. Peters and Elizabeth Bowman, editor and associate editor of **Journal of English Linguistics**, Western Washington State College, and Janet Callender of the University of Hawaii for their detailed and constructive criticisms.

2. The terms **subject** and **predicate** are used for the purpose of explanatory convenience. No offense to or defense of Chomsky's deep grammar or Fillmore's deep grammar is intended here.

words Group B at the beginning), M (a morphologically formed part in the middle), and -F (a phonologically formed final). B + M is re-arranged to B + M-F.
-F

B + M-F does not account for the information that when M occurs as V, *do* participates, and the preceding B is stressed. Futhermore, 1 and 2 are redundant. Preceding B in 1 and 2 is reduced and is marked, B. When M occurs as B, *do* does not participate, and the preceding B is unstressed. Similarly, 3 and 4 are redundant. Preceding B in 3 and 4 is reduced and is unmarked, B. B + M-F is re-formulated as

B + M-F. M ends a continuous string; -F ends
B +
a discontinuous string. They are following members in each case. In addition, they (5 and 6) are redundant. M does not occur without -F as the phonologically formed final. Following members M and -F are reduced to F. Previous B + M-F is finally
B +
formulated as B + F, the grammatical
B +
formula that operates predicate expansion.

The following is the reduced tabulation of the occurrences (+) and non-occurrences (-) of *be, have, do, will,* and *can* in predicate expansion with the features in the final formula B + F for both kinds of strings in
B
internal relationship.

	can	will	do	have	be
B	+	+	+	+	+
B	+	+	-	+	+
F	-	-	-	+	+

An expanded predicate has both external and internal relationship. The external relationship, subject agreement (S-a), is in the first word of an expanded predicate. S-a is added to the previous tabulation containing information only on the internal relationship of string formation.

	can	will	do	have	be
S-a	-	-	+	+	+
B	+	+	+	+	+
B	+	+	-	+	+
F	-	-	-	+	+

The above is one form of the final tabulation of the three auxiliaries and the two modals in predicate expansion. It begins with S-a and ends with F.

Another form of the final tabulation lists S-a first; S-a marks the beginning of predicate expansion. F is given next; (+) or (-) F after the verb terminates predicate expansion.

	can	will	do	have	be
S-a	-	-	+	+	+
F	-	-	-	+	+
B	+	+	+	+	+
B	+	+	-	+	+

To observe the principle of simplicity, S-a should be excluded in either form, since expanded predicates begin with a word from function words Group B. B or B includes the information of S-a. For the purpose of tabulating details, S-a is included, since deletion of S-a will also delete the information that in S-a, *do* (+) behaves like an auxiliary (+) rather than like a modal (-). This behavior is different from that of *do* in forming discontinuous strings (F) when *do* (-) is like a modal (-) rather than an auxiliary (+). In forming continuous strings, when B is stressed (B), *do* (+) is like both the auxiliaries (+) and the modals (+). When B is unstressed, *do* (-) is like neither the auxiliaries (+) nor the modals (+).

The (+) or (-) information in either form of the tabulation is the same. The first one has a systematic arrangement from S-a to F; the second one brings the behavior of *do* into better focus.

Uniqueness of behavior such as that of *do* in predicate expansion extends also to *be, have, will,* and *can.* In spite of the similarity between *be* and *have*, there is the dissimilarity that *be* succeeds each other; *have* does not. Although there is similarity between *will* and *can*, there is also the dissimilarity that *will* occurs before *have; can* does not.

Each of the three auxiliaries and the two modals has its individual behavior in predicate expansion. Their complexity in occurring grammatical word strings, however, can be represented by a simple grammatical formula B + F.

In the two kinds of strings, the continuous and the discontinuous, three correlations occur. The first one is between the length of the continuous string and the participation of members in the string. The shorter the string is, the more inclusive the

membership is. In a 2-member string in which the second member is the verb, *be, have, do, will* and *can* all participate.

```
The man is   going ─┐
The man is   gone   ──→ be + V
The man has  gone   ─── have + V
The man does go     ─── do + V
The man will go     ─── will + V
The man can  go     ─── can + V
```

Conversely, the longer the string, the more exclusive the membership. In a continuous string of five members, *do* and *can* do not participate.

The star will have been being seen -- will + have + be + be + V

```
Correlation 1

length          membership

short ---------- inclusive
long  ---------- exclusive
```

The second correlation is between the proximity of the preceding member of a discontinuous string to the verb and the formation of the following member in the string. Synchronized continuous and discontinuous strings assume positional restriction among *be, have, do, will,* and *can. Do* does not participate in strings longer than two members. *Will* and *can* are mutually exclusive; *can* does not occur before *have*. In a string in which *be, have,* and *will* all occur, *be* is the nearest to the verb, *will* the farthest away from the verb, and *have* falls between *be* and *will*. Their positional restriction in relation to the verb is given below.

```
farthest   next   nearest

will       have   be        verb
```

The correlation is that the nearer the preceding member is to the verb, the more complex the following member is in formation. On the contrary, the farther away the preceding member is from the verb, the simpler the following member is in formation. *Be* is the nearest; it forms two kinds of discontinuous strings with its immediately following member. Each of the following member is inflected.

```
The man is going  ---  be + -ing ─┐
The man is gone   ---  be + -n ──→ be + ─┐ -ing
                                        └ -n
```

Have is next. It forms one kind of discontinuous string with its immediately following member. The following member is also inflected.

```
The man has gone  ---  have + -n
```

Will is the farthest away from the verb. It also forms one kind of discontinuous string with its following member. The following member, however, is uninflected.

```
The man will go   ---  will + -ϕ
```

The sentences below show the proximity of the preceding members of discontinuous strings to the verb and the formation of their following members.

```
                will have be verb

The man           is  go-ing
The man           is  go-n
The man      has      go-n
The man will          go-ϕ
```

```
Correlation 2

proximity       formation

near ---------- complex
far  ---------- simple
```

The third correlation is between the degree of precision and obscurity in language occurrence and that of concision and obviousness in grammatical formulas. The occurrence of each word in a sentence with an expansion as long as

(continued on page 10)

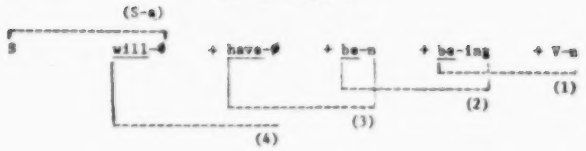
SPEECH COMMUNICATION

(continued from page 5)

The frames, as presented, show that each small segment of learning is reinforced by a review. After each review, the student is asked to proceed with the next frame if satisfactory results are achieved, or re-do the frames in question if the results are not satisfactory.

The geometric terms are presented so that the student will be able to identify all of the shapes that are used in the final dyadic activity. Two communication factors come into play at this point: (1) vocabulary expansion which, in turn, contributes to (2) the economy of words in that much can be said with one "technical"

(continued on page 11)



has maximum precision and minimum obscurity in string formation. B + F for B + simple predicate expansion assumes embedded step by step **reduction** according to linguistic features and linguistic principles. As a grammatical formula, it has maximum concision and minimum obviousness.

Correlation 3

maximum		minimum
precision	----------	obscurity
concision	----------	obviousness

Numerous sets of opposites occur in simple predicate expansion. External relationships and internal relationships are one example. Continuous strings and discontinuous strings are another. Auxiliaries and modals; aux + V and modal + V; B + V and B + B; B and B; -ing and -n; -N and -Ø; a short continuous string with inclusive membership and long string with exclusive membership; proximity to the verb with complex discontinuous string formation in the following member and distance from the verb with simple formation in the following member; maximum precision with minimum obscurity and maximum concision and minimum obviousness are some of the other opposites. The list does not take into account some other opposites such as *The man is gone* with *be* + -n as the non-passive which can alternate with *The man has gone* with *have* + -n and *The man is forgotten* with *be* + -n as the passive which cannot alternate with *The man has forgotten* with *have* + -n; *The meat is cooking* with *be* + -ing as the passive which can alternate with *The meat is being cooked* with *be* + *be*-ing + -n, and *The man is testing* with *be* + ing as the non-passive which does not alternate with *The man is being tested* with *be* + *be*-ing + -n. These are to mention only two. Among the three auxiliaries and the two modals, each is in opposition to the other four. There are only five words in the English language examined as a means in simple predicate expansion in affirmative statements alone. The significant fact is that grammatical word strings observe precise individual vocabulary participation in string formation and operate also within concise grammatical formulas. The dichotomy between precise obviousness and concise obscurity is there, and so is the supplementation of the opposites. Whether it is grammatical word strings or grammatical formulas or the relationship between the two, the individual can choose the one which interests him. Language itself operates with the supplementation of opposites. In this supplementation of opposites, simple predicate expansion in affirmative statements is no exception.

More on Using a Directory

(continued from page 6)

Remember just put your hand on our list and you will never let go."

"Are you with no hair, or with hair that you don't like? If so, do hurry today to Fashion Wigs Imports, or ring us up for wigs and toupees, either wholesale or retail. Hairloom Royale is the latest invention, the world's most natural looking, most undetectable toupee. You may dance, swim or sleep with it on. We give special discounts to the military. We are open every day so do not hesitate to call and receive the best service in Hawaii."

As the writing class came to a close it was generally agreed by the students and me that the telephone directory approach is valuable and has a permanent place in the English Language Institute writing program.

SPEECH COMMUNICATION

(continued from page 9)

or "better" word. In other words, good vocabulary items contribute toward effective communication by promoting an economy of words, thus minimizing or eliminating confusion and error. All singular frames use the necessary indefinite article. Plurals may be introduced if desired without the article.

This unit was planned so that a student can be given a place or station, where he could work alone or with one other student. He would be given a slide projector, a tape recorder, and a set of earphones. In addition, he would be given an envelope containing the shapes introduced in the slides. When he completes Part I, he will communicate with his teacher so that a dyadic situation would be set up in which he and another student would be seated in a back-to-back situation as illustrated below:

The student will then be given the following instructions:

1. Take out all pieces from the envelope and count them. There should be 8.
If not, call to instructor's attention.

2. Students have only 2 minutes to communicate a design to listener. (See slide 20 and 21).

3. They may not place the pieces in a row - they must construct a design.

4. They may not look at each other's work unless permission is granted.

5. They must decide immediately who is to be "A" and who is to be "B".

In the first two minutes "A" will speak and "B" will not speak, make any sound, or send any signals. He will merely follow the directions he is given. After the first two minutes, allow them to look at each other's work and compare, but do not offer any explanations. In the second two minutes, have them compare their work again.

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After the discussion between the participants is completed, discuss these points thoroughly: The communicator must speak loud enough to be heard clearly, he must articulate with enough vigor so that his listener can understand him, he must use "technical" or "better" words in order to say a great deal in a short time. Students must by informed that this exercise is based strictly on verbal bahavior, consequently, the back-to-back position.

In the next round, allow a free flow of communication with emphasis on the three-sentence chain. In essence, it refers to the use of 3 consecutive sentences to complete the exchange of imformation: (1) a statement, (2) a question, and (3) an answer. In other words, the listener should not merely be content with a response of "Yes" or "No". He should assume his role in the interchange. Allow person "A" and person "B" to alternate until both succeed in communicating directions to the listener successfully. Successful communication is demonstrated by a reproduction of the design by the listener.

This communication exercise is very useful in that it emphasizes the factors that are important in communication. It also can be developed or adapted to different phases of vocabulary development as well as conceptual development while reinforcing prepositions of position. Emphasize that listening comprehension and oral production are both necessary in good communitcation.

BOOK REVIEW

English Through Pictures – Book 1. I.A. Richards and Christine Gibson. Washington Square Press New York, 1945. Price - 75 cents. 268 pages.

A First Workbook of English. I.A. Richards and Christine Gibson. 160 pages.

A Second Workbook of English. I.A. Richards and Christine Gibson. Washington Square Press. New York, 1959. Price 75 cents. 160 pages.

A graphically illustrated text containing a careful selection of the most widely used English words put into key patterns for quick mastery and application by the beginning student. These common words in their common sentence forms are made clear to the student page by page with the help of pictures. This book can most effectively be used in conjunction with **A First Workbook of English, Book 1.** Teachers will find that it exercises the essential patterns of English in problem situations which invite solutions. Individual and group role playing within the classroom is quite effective using supplementary pictures and objects. Pupils can be encouraged to act out their understanding of the highly concrete language The text and two accompanying workbooks contain a high utility vocabulary which is self reviewing. These books are good basic **tools** for the beginning adult student and the imaginative intuitive teacher.

There is also a companion book - **English Through Pictures Book 11** . Recordings and filmstrips are also available.

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